

locusts may seem to us, the Hottentot honors it. A Hottentot told me, with a wonderful mixture of Christian and heathen fantasy, that God himself, when he came down from heaven and lived on the still unpopulated earth, lived for a long time only on lucusts. Should he then be ashamed of it?

2. Vegetable Foods

The vegetable foods of the Hottentots consist of wild plants* with

* The plants that belong here are mostly little known botanically and from the point of view of nourishment. Mention of them in writings is so scattered that I shall disregard summarizing these fragments and restrict myself to an account of my own few observations.

the few exceptions named above (garden crops). The most important from the point of view of quantity and nourishment are: a) the underground parts of certain plants that are filled with reserve materials such as rootstocks, tubers, or bulbs (cf. the analysis in the appendix).

The edible "field onions" (Cape Dutch: uientjes, called kxai-ran) have various forms. The Iridaceae are represented in the plains around Kubub primarily by a Babiana species (called *gũnub), which are easily identified in the dry season by their withered leaves. On the other hand, a field onion grows in the Kububer mountains which can only be found [193] when the rain has brought out the young leaves. The Hottentots call this kind which I could not classify *!gao-beb.

[Picture: Babiana spec. 2/3 natural size. Moraea spec. 2/3 natural size. *ha-ʔob. 2/3 natural size.]

Both Uientjes species are gathered by the sack in good years. The type mentioned first is prepared in one of two ways; it is either [194] roasted in hot ashes, or the onions are cleaned of their skins while fresh and chopped up in a sack by beating them with stones. When the whole mass has been dried in the sun, it is salted and cooked with milk to a porridge.

The bulbs of another edible Iridaceae, a Moraea species with peculiarly turned leaves (called *garib), is supposed to have given its

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Babiana spec.
2/3 natural size



Moraea spec.
2/3 natural size



An. /ob
2/3 natural size

name to the place Karibib (~~aga~~·ribeb).

Similar to bulbs are the underground reserves of edible Oxalidaceae. 137
The uientje of the Oxalis genus, called */ũ·/ robis by the Hottentots, 262
is eaten either raw or roasted in ashes. Another kind (*/ha·/ ob) is also 222
crushed in boiling milk. The Oxalis obtusa L. f. (called !kza·ros) is [252]
considered poisonous for cattle. The baboon digs up a related non-
poisonous kind. [Picture: Grielum humifusum Thbg. 2/3 natural
size]

Because of their effect on the body, several field onions should be 137
mentioned here, which have not been classified botanically. The 824
!ha/ni-Uientje (50), (57) is supposed to cause a swelling in the parotid

50. H. Schinz, Deutsche-Südwestafrika.
Forschungsreisen (1884-1887) durch die deutschen
Schutzgebiete etc. Oldenburg and Leipzig, 1891.

57. J. G. Kroenlein, Wortschatz der Khoi-Khoi,
Berlin, 1889.

gland if overindulged in. I heard a Hottentot shout at a Bergdamara
who had such swollen cheeks: "*!kzara-!goreb kxoma !hanixa tanasa ũ,"
i. e. "you, with an onion head like a male zebra." The zebra is well-
known for its broad head and neck.

It is said of another uientje with yellow blossoms and a brownish-
red bulb, that eating too much of it when the plant is sprouting [195]
causes blood in the urine. The name, */ao·beb perhaps also alludes
to the color of the edible part.

Which plant the Bergdamaras call *!kxō·aireb, and which plant
corresponds to the */a·mareb of the Hottentots, I was not able to de-
termine.

If one cannot collect the leaves and the blossoms that belong to 137
the underground tuberous objects that the Hottentot digs up, it is 262
usually impossible to classify them. Thus I can only give three names
here: Grielum humifusum Thbg. (called: *!kxu·ib, or *tsā/za·gai·eb),
a Rosaceae with herbaceous juicy branches that creep along the ground
and bright sulphur-colored blossoms which furnish the Hottentots a dish
from its carrot-shaped underground parts. [Picture. Ceropegia spec.
1/2 natural size.] The same is true of an Umbelliferae, a Peucedanum
species. A twining Asklepiadaceae of the Ceropegia family forms
edible tubers like potatoes with a yellowish-brown, wrinkled and
bumpy surface. The raw tubers are hard but juicy and cool enough
to be refreshing.

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[p194]



Grielum humifusum Thbg. 2/3 natural size.

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[195]



Ceropegia spec. 1/2 natural size.

[196] I would like to direct the attention of future travelers to the following plants, the leaves and blossoms of which are greatly desired, if he would like to become acquainted with the wild field fruits of the old inhabitants of the country: 222 137

a) *omam!gaub is a plant with succulent leaves; the carrot-like underground part has a strong purgative effect. The name of the plant expresses this drastically: "one lets it fall (!gau) at the door (ams) of the hut (oms)", or, more optimistically translated, "one just makes it to the courtyard." [Picture. omam!gaub. 1/2 natural size. The "Ostrich foot". 2/3 natural size.] [278]

) *iga-/marib- (3. st. cf. p. 352.) or *na. bab has a smooth, carrot-like, underground part and thin, narrow leaves, 3 centimeters long and crinkled at the edges.

) */kxu-bus forms juicy root formations as big as a child's head. Pelargonium incrassatum Curt., called */a. mi-tai-b, the "Ostrich foot", (so called because of the shape of the budding leaves) is the last of the plants which should be mentioned here because of their edible underground parts.

b) The chief fruits are gourds and cucumbers because of the abundant water in their flesh and the food content of their seeds.

The Topnaars in the region of Waluis Bay received their name !na-ranin from the gourd fruit !na-rab, the Acanthosicyos horrida Welw., on which they live for a large part of the year (cf. Analysis in the appendix). The nara matures in the first four months of the year: the chief harvest time is in February and March. [101]

Then the kraals become desolate. The poorer families depart for the dunes with all their belongings, either taking their mat house with them or building a scanty shelter of brushwood, which can scarcely be called a hut, and only return to their old dwellings to get water when it is unavailable in the nara field. Wealthier Hottentots stay at home and have the nara brought to them by slaves and only go out for the day on a visit or for inspection. [Picture. Half-ripe nara fruit. 2/3 natural size] [342] [567]

The individual families have inherited rights to definite nara bushes (cf. Plate IX above and illustrations, page 146, 147). That is the only case known to me of private ownership of immoveable property outside of the hut area among the Hottentots. The Hottentot defends his nara bushes from attacks by fellow tribesmen by bringing a legal complaint before the captain. No quarter is given the Berg-damaras and Bushmen. I know of several cases in which the thieves

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Omam! gaub.
1/2 natural size



the "Ostrich foot."
2/3 natural size

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[p.197]



Half-ripe nara fruit. 2/3 natural size.

252 [Picture. Basket Sieve of the Topnaars, 1/3 natural size. Nara
262 Whiak, 1/5 natural size. Nara Cake, 1/4 natural size.]

415 Each fruit contains about 250 seeds. They remain in the sieve,
● 137 are spread out to dry and loaded into sacks. The soft inside of the
kernel can be bitten out of the shell and is just as tasty as it is nourish-
ing. Most of the seeds are crushed along with the shells, in a large
strong wooden cup, to a brown mass that is like coarse meal. [200]
This is formed into bite-size pieces by hand and eaten without any-
thing else added.

[324] The cup for mashing hai-os (the one depicted here, was carved
[77]) from the wood of the ana tree [Acacia albida Del.] by a Hottentot)
resembles the wooden vessel in which the Boers and the Bastards crush
[412] wheat and perhaps stems from it. The pestle, //o-ab (- arm) comes
from the wood of the giraffe acacia [kameeldoorn]. The other
Cucurbitaceae (for example, Cucumis, Citrullus and Coccinia) of
Namaland are inferior to the nara. Of the gourds, which they call
137 tsa/ma-b, the Hottentots eat only the sweet kind with its meat.

252 Only the cattle eat the foliage and fruits of the bitter kind,
262 *so-robe-tsa/ma-b (Citrullus colocynthis L.). The Bushmen eat its
seeds. On the other hand, gourds are decisive for the life of man and
beast in large sections of the Kalahari (see above). [Picture. Pestle
for nara seeds, 1/3 natural size.]

Of the edible tree fruits, in addition to those of the rasenki bush
[Zizyphus mucronatus Willd.] and of the black ebony tree, the "wild
fig," /no/ma-s, and the seeds of an Anacardiaceae, a tsai bush,
(Rhus celastroides Sond, called !a-nas) should be mentioned. We will
become acquainted with the fruits of the Grewia flava D.C. (called
!ai/s) in the Kalahari.

c) The resourcefulness of the Hottentot in his search for food,
must have led him long ago to the discovery that certain ants gather
seeds that may also be consumed by humans. Thus large black ants,
[222] that are not yet classified, gather the seeds of the Augas capensis Thbg.
which, enclosed in wing-shaped laminae, are set fan-shaped in the
ribbed fruits. The Hottentots plunder the stores of the ants ("ant food"),
roast the seeds in a pan, crush them with stones and eat the meal.

Especially prized are such ant stores that consist exclusively or
predominantly of seeds of the Aristida grasses. Such a supply of grass
is called tsa-/mab. The women boil them with milk to make a
porridge.

[201] Finally, the food called //kxuni-b, which consists of the seeds of the candle bush (Sarcocaulon) are eaten. The Hottentots, with whom I collected these seeds, maintained that a snake, called //kxni-nibe-b, often lives with the ants that gather these seeds. Another name for this questionable snake, that is more interesting from the ethnological standpoint than from the zoological one, is *!ga-riap!ga-/mi. !gariap is an alert, hard working, young man; !ga/m is to kill. The name thus means "young man killer." According to the story, this snake winds itself around the ankles of the ant food thief and holds him tight until a poisonous snake comes at its whistle to kill him. [Picture. Wooden winnowing basins, the lower one decorated with a burned in pattern, 1/4 natural size.]

Cleaning the ant food from dust and stones is done in a flat, long wooden vessel (*//nu-bilo-reb). The mass is purified from the dusty admixture by simply swinging the vessel up and down in the air far out from the body. The dust flies up in the air while the heavier parts fall back into the vessel. The food is cleaned from stones by a peculiar double motion of the vessel. The right hand holds the dish loosely on the narrow side and pushes the vessel forward and up. The left hand supports this motion, while it lets the vessel glide upwards in the rhythm of the right (holding the middle of the long side loosely with the thumb and grasping the under side with the rest of the fingers). All the stones collect way in the back and the food in the front part of the dish.

d) Several plants will be mentioned here, the leaves and blommens or meaty stem of which are eaten as vegetables.

An Asclepiadaceae, Trichocaulon pedicellatum Schinz, forms thick meaty knobs, shaped like a club or a pear, which has given the plant the name !na/ba/xa/rah, which means rhinoceros testicle. After pressing out [202] or sucking out the unpotable juice, the meat is eaten raw. And the other hand, two thorn-covered succulents (called //go/a-b and !kxo-bab) are sought out because of their juice. A somewhat sour juice in the meaty leaves of certain Geraniaceae is also refreshing.

The wrinkled branches of Pelargonium crithmifolium Smith, P. carneum (L.) Ait. and P. zonale Willd. (called *//hu/fms), which are covered with a grayish brown bark and are reddish inside when freshly cut, are roasted in hot ashes.

A Liliaceae, Anthericum drepanophyllum (Buk.) Scher., called *//kxo-roh, furnishes a pleasant tasting vegetable.

[Picture, Anthericum drepanophyllum (Bak.) Schtr. 1/2 natural size. 137 ●
Pelargonium zonale Willd. 5/6 natural size.] 222

The leaves and flowers of the /ũ/robis, of the Oxalis genus are 262
dried in a pan over the fire, crumbled and kneaded in fresh milk when
cooled. The milk then curdles. All the coarse fibrous parts are re- [252]
moved, the leaves and blossoms separate into small pieces and are
eaten.

Several compositae offer edible blossoms. The blossoms of two
Gazania species (one white and one yellow, both called *!go-bo//nã/s)
are eaten with pleasure, either raw or stirred into a porridge in boiling
milk with salt.

A number of compositae are grouped together under the collective
name */gĩ-gye/ga-mes, to which those with edible blossoms also be-
long [203] such as the Berkheya corymbosa D.C. The above-mentioned
Hottentot term, however, also includes a Hydrophyllaceae with edible [224]
blossoms, Codon Royeni Thbg. and is also used for Compositae which
cannot be eaten such as Eremothamnus Mariothamnus O. Hoffm.). It
must also be considered that many of the above-mentioned blossoms
are only occasionally eaten by adults, but one cannot pass them by
without any comment, because they are of importance for the nourish- [355]
ment of the children, who have to get along by themselves and can
satisfy their hunger with them. The same is true of the gum-resin
(hai-rab) of the acacias. [Picture, Codon Royeni Thbg. Natural size.]

3. Luxuries

Luxuries of the natives were formerly infusions made from legumes 222
and herbs of various kinds. Even today the capsules of Ectadium 272
virgatum E. Mey. and the seeds from the pods [204] of the Acacia
hebeclada, D.C. which are as long as a finger and stand stiffly up- 137
right, are roasted, ground and infused while boiling. Similarly they
use the seeds of a pod-bearing bush called !kĩã/s, which is easily
recognized by its soft leaves, longer than one's finger and piny
needles, which are set in pairs at the root of a long, yellow, hard,
sharp thorn that is a centimeter long. A fern is also brewed as tea. 177
But since the natives have become accustomed to our coffee and tea, 272
the above-mentioned plants have ceased to be important, at least
in the household of the healthy Hottentot. In addition the Hottentot
has become a slave to alcohol and tobacco since coming into contact
with whites.

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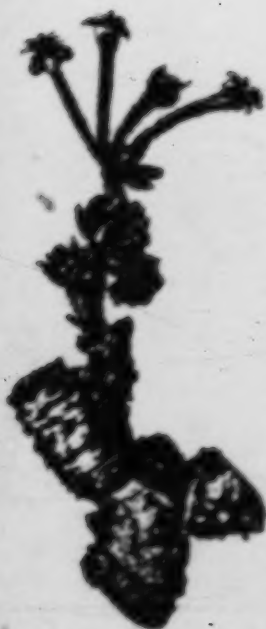
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[202]



Anthericum drepanophyllum
(Buk.) Schtr. 1/2 natural size.



Pelargonium zonale Willd.
5/6 natural size.

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[203]



Codon Roylei Thbg. Natural size.

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[p.204]



Fronds a few from a few plants

the tail of a fat-tailed sheep is preferred to that of cattle or goats because of its softness. The grease is poured into the ox horn containers over a small skin strip that lies inside, from which the salve can be conveniently stripped off in small quantities between the fingers.

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[237]

Greasing the body with fat is also a thorough massage. The word !gu-ri designates both. For relieving a general [Picture. Horn Fat Containers. 1/4 natural size] sick feeling and for increasing [208] a feeling of well-being (for example, to induce a pleasant feeling of tiredness before going to bed), massage is the Hottentots' favorite kind of body care. [Picture. Pricked Ornamentation around the Horn Fat Container. 1/2 natural size. The vertical lines follow the natural pattern of the horn.]

[757]

3. Cosmetics

They try to give their skin a pleasant smell by powdering themselves with buchu (//nōn(e)n). The buchu, sa-ḡb, is a fine brown powder which the women make out of the following ingredients, sometimes, just one, sometimes mixed, according to what is available or to individual taste:

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a) from the short, fleshy leaves of certain Mesembrianthemum species, which they call gai- and *!qari-ḡa-eb. Instead of these leaves, the aboveground and underground parts of the most varied kinds of bushes are used to prepare buchu, such as the slim bulblike, swollen root part of a Cyperus species.

b) Lichen are favorite ingredients for buchu. (The Parmelia hottentotta (Thbg.) Ach. is scraped off stones and therefore is called */u-i//!qao-b, i.e. "stone scratch." Other lichen for buchu have the names *!na-/roheb and *!u-/risā-b.

c) The powdery spores of a mushroom [Bauchpilz] (it seems to be a Podaxon species) are already so fine a powder, that the women hang the !qari-ḡa-eb on a stick and beat it. The underground parts of the mushroom are dried and pulverized.

The women keep the buchu herbs which they collect in a little bag, which is made preferably from the skin of a lamb that was born prematurely or has been taken from the body of the mother. The skin is removed in one piece. The parts of the plants are pulverized on a stone either as soon as they are dry or after a brief roasting over the fire. The powder is then frequently mixed with fine quartz dust.

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[419]

completely healed after several days, the needle is removed and re-
placed by an earring. There were many complaints about painful
swelling of the ear lobes after being pierced. [Picture. Iron earrings.
9/10 natural size.] 301
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Necklaces of rosin beads are one bit of jewelry which holds its own
against all imported bright glass kinds, even though difficult to make
and unassuming in appearance. [252] The yellow rosin of an Othonna
species (called *gu/s) is rubbed with the cold coals of the hearth fire.
This mixture (a powder) is warmed with a burning piece of wood and
knéaded with the other hand at the same time. The warm mass is
rolled into sausages with the flat of the hand on a smooth surface.
Little pieces are taken from these sausage rolls and formed into pills
over the fire. The pills are put on slivers of wood (so that the wood
goes through them) and after hardening, strung on sinew, often alter-
nating regularly with bright stones or glass beads. The bead necklaces
(called the same as the plant from which they are fashioned) are often
combined to a thick bundle of chains, *//ga-∫mi, which has good trading
value among Hottentots. A chain which will wind ten times loosely
around the neck and reach down to the breast has the value of a nanny
goat. [Picture. Necklaces. Top and bottom: made of rosin. In
the middle: made of ostrich eggshells.] 301
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[824]

Imported glass beads are popular. The large-beaded necklaces
are differentiated by the word !a/ma from the small-beaded ones
*ga-rab. Ankle rings, *!go-ro!kxu-ib, consisting of thickset rows of
little glass beads, are still occasionally worn under the skin shoes. 301
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[253]

Capitulum III

The Hottentot's Mode of Living

Great Namaland, a typical dry area of South Africa, has such
scanty growth in its limited area that it cannot provide the animal
world with sufficient food and water. The characteristic animals of
the South African grassy plains, at the same time its most valuable
wildlife, the antelopes, must roam over extensive areas just to get
a meager living. Like the predatory animals, the hunters follow these
herds; wherever the native has exchanged this unsettled way of life,
which one day leaves him in need, the next day with a surplus, for the
regulated life of a herdsman, he finds himself forced more than ever
to wander, the more numerous his cattle (/go-an) become. [Picture.
South African ox wagon.] 221
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the fat-pot (//gubusa) of the people. But the people came back while (hĩa) the jackal was still (ĩa "to remain") at (doba) the hut. Then the man (aoba) of the hut asked (tē): "Of which (mā) district (!āb) are you the jackal?" (-tsa personal suff. of the 2nd pers. sing. masc., nominative)* Then the

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"The word *tumi "so," which is frequently attached to direct discourse, has merely the function of summing up, in contrast to the conjunction goma, which has an imperative sense. "Mā !ab ʔfritsa goma" would mean: "Where do you come from? Answer! That's my command."

jackal answered (leram): "I (-ta) [am] the jackal from the arobush district. [The fruit] of the aro tree (-na, ending of the neut. pl.) I eat (ʔuta), from the har bush I eat, from the au bush I eat, yes indeed (gumo)!"

[137]

"The *ʔa-ros bush is Zisypus mucronatus Willd. (Rhamnaceae). *ʔhari is Royena pallens Thbg. (Ebenaceae). ʔau is Grewia flava D.C. (Tiliaceae). The jackal lives indeed from the berrylike fruit of these bushes, among other things.

Repetition. Then:

Thereupon the man said (mĩ): "Let (ē, imperative particle) me (-ta) see (gō) you (-tai) excrete (ʔau)." Thus (tĩ) he says. Then the jackal excreted aroberries. And the man asked again:

Repetition of the question and demand.

And the jackal excreted hari berries. Then the man asked:

Repetition of the question and demand.

And the jackal excreted au berries and [again] the man asked: "Of what place are you, jackal?" And the jackal answered: "I am the jackal of the aro district. I eat aro berries, I eat hari berries, I eat au berries, yes indeed!"

Repetition. Then:

And the man said: "Let me see you excrete." Then the jackal excretes fat, and the man caught (!kō) him (bi). But the jackal cried: "My (tĩ) grandfather (//naob), hold me differently." (!kō "to seize," unu "to turn around," !gā "backwards"). And the man seized him differently. The

NATURAL DIVISIONS AND VEGETATION 9

and Middle Kalahari that it is scarcely possible to traverse parts of the country, and many routes can only be followed at such times as the pools have been filled by recent rain.

The winter climate is delightful. The heat during the other months is great, but there are occasional short, sudden, and therefore treacherous changes from extreme heat to cold. Malarial fever is prevalent, being particularly severe in the neighbourhood of the water-courses and other low-lying places, where during and immediately after the season of the heavy rains the dense bush, thick undergrowth, and rank vegetation afford excellent shelter to mosquitoes. The rainfall varies from about 8 inches in the south-west to more than 20 inches in the north and east; almost all the rain falls in the summer months, December to April, and chiefly in thunderstorms. Except in the north, none of this rainfall reaches the sea, the water being either evaporated directly or flowing into shallow depressions such as Lake Ngami and the Great Makarrikarri salt-pan. Over wide areas the country is so flat that the rain drains off partly in one direction, partly in another.

The principal river in the north is the Okavango, which, rising in the Angola highlands, flows into the Okavango marshes, a region about a hundred miles in length and from ten to fifty miles in width. From this reed-choked swamp the river at certain seasons overflows on the north into the Kwando and so reaches the Zambesi, and on the south into Lake Ngami and the Botletle River, which feeds the Makarrikarri depression and the great sandy plains of the north-east. During the rains the whole of this region is covered with wide stretches of water, often extending far beyond the horizon. The Nossob, Molopo, and Kuruman Rivers in the south, which formerly drained the greater part of the Middle and Southern Kalahari into the Orange River, are now for the most part sandy beds bordered with ~~low~~ ^{small} water is seldom found except towards their heads. At the present time no water leaves this part of the Kalahari except through evaporation. The country appears to be suffering from progressive desiccation, but there is said to be good evidence of an abundant supply of water not far beneath the surface.

The rainfall, though very small in the west and south, enables a fair amount of vegetation to flourish, chiefly grasses, shrubs, and trees, except in certain areas where the soil is too saline. The great plains, more especially in the south, are covered with tough sun-bleached Bushman grass (*Aristida brevifolia*), growing knee-high and giving

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137 the country the appearance of a vast cornfield. Considerable portions, chiefly in the west and north, are, however, covered with dense thorn bush, while in the north-west the whole region is well timbered and merges into thick tropical vegetation. Along the river beds throughout the country are dense thickets of *Acacia* (*detinens*, *giraffae*, and *karroo*), almost impenetrable in parts and often harbouring great numbers of wild animals. Large forest trees such as mopane, commiphora, and here and there baobabs are found in the north. Succulents, such as the *Aloe dichotoma* and *Euphorbia dinteri*, abound wherever there is rocky soil, while leguminous and bulbous plants are an important feature of the vegetation in all parts. The most remarkable of these plants is the well-known *tsama* melon (*Citrullus vulgaris*), which owing to its nutritive and thirst-quenching properties is a veritable staff of life in many parts of the country during the height of the dry season.

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137 Towards the western border of the Kalahari, as the superficial deposits become thinner, ridges of rock make their appearance and become more and more numerous, the ground-level rises generally, and the region passes by degrees into the highlands of South-West Africa, which form the western edge of the vast interior plateau. This whole territory is practically one great series of undulating elevated plains, intersected by small mountain ranges, of which the Brandberg near the coast rises up as high as 8,277 feet above the sea.

In the far north-west is a chain of rugged mountains stretching south-east through the highland region of the Kaokoveld at a distance of 25 to 40 miles from the coast. Further inland the north-east Kaokoveld consists of an elevated plain, sloping abruptly towards the Kunene River and Ovamboland; from it hills emerge to the south and west. Ovamboland, which shares the characteristics of the Kalahari region, is a slightly undulating sandy plain, intersected by a number of shallow watercourses filled by the Kunene ~~mountains and~~ draining to the Etosha Pan. Towards the south of the Kaokoveld there is a general decrease in height. This southern portion, a country of steep, rocky hills with narrow valleys, passes over to the east into the Karst region, for the greater part a wide plain sloping gently towards the Etosha Pan and characterized by the formations associated with dolomitic limestone. The usual features of this kind of country are met with: sink holes, subterranean caverns and springs, and the absence of defined waterways, due to the porous character of the surface covering.

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132 flow for any considerable distance. For the rest of the time they have
133 water only below the bed or in pools. Away from these sandy beds
water as a rule is extremely hard to find. After heavy rains great
hollows in the rocks are filled with water which is a blessing to any
traveller passing that way, and there are also vleis and depressions
which hold water for a short while. Springs, however, are few and
far between, and then generally occur in the river-courses.

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137 Corresponding to the variation in the rainfall there is a variation
in the character of the vegetation. In the extreme south for a consider-
able distance semi-desert conditions prevail, the arid, stony plateaus
and plains supporting a sparse growth of grass and small, scrubby
bushes, including the different species of *Grevia* which produce the
wild berries so much used by all the natives as food. In heavy rainy
seasons, however, nutritious grasses and flowers spring up everywhere.
The river-courses are clothed with trees, especially the Kameeldoorn
(*Acacia giraffae*) and the Kokerboom (*Aloe dichotoma*), and in all
of them, too, the South American *Nicotiana glauca* Grah., the wild
tobacco plant, is found as a straggly, weedy shrub or tree. Northwards
the veld assumes the characteristics of the Karroo until Rehoboth is
reached, when it changes into park-like grass country studded with
large thorn trees, being especially well timbered along the watercourses.
From the mountainous portions of the Windhoek district northwards
towards Omaruru the country is covered with level bush with an
undergrowth of very nutritious grass, the valleys and watercourses
being well wooded mostly with *Acacia* trees, especially the
Kameeldoorn. Towards the north the bush becomes denser until it
is fairly well timbered all over. In its northernmost section it is
traversed by belts of open Mopane forest, and towards the Okavango
fertile tropical vegetation is abundant. Numerous kinds of fruits,
roots, and tubers used by the natives as food are found over the whole
region, but most abundantly in the north. The edible bulbs belong
for the most part to the *Iridaceae* family, while the tubers are generally
Asclepiads, though the *Cyperaceae* and the *Oxalidas* also furnish
succulent tuber-like growths.

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132 South of the Orange River the rocky western edge of the great
133 interior plateau is extended into the highlands of Little Namaqualand
in the Cape Province. With scanty soil and low rainfall (5 to 15
inches) this region shares the characteristics of the southern portion
of South-West Africa. Short perennial streams are found in the
Kamiesberg, but the mountainous country enclosed by the great bend

NATURAL DIVISIONS AND VEGETATION 13

of the Orange River is very dry. The level arid plain of Bushmanland further east is essentially a continuation of the Kalahari, from which it is separated by the deep rocky valley of the Orange River. The summer rainfall is low (5 to 10 inches), increasing gradually from the west eastwards; there is practically no surface water, and the soil is usually bare, stony or sandy. The river-beds are mostly dry throughout the greater part of the year, and the Orange River is the only one that always contains water. The general aspect of the vegetation both here and in Namaqualand is that of widely-separated xerophytic shrubs and bushes, with a fair proportion of succulent plants in the low-lying valleys and on the rocky outcrops. Grasses do not form a conspicuous feature, but they occur on the high plateaus and sandy plains, where the vegetative period is short, and where they always assume a tufted habit.

Further south and east is the Upper or Northern Karroo, an arid tract of country stretching northwards to the Orange River at an elevation of between 2,800 and 6,000 feet above sea-level. It is bounded on the west by the Roggeveld, on the south by the Nieuwveld and Sneeuwberg ranges, which form part of the great escarpment of the interior plateau. The landscape appears for the most part in the form of vast treeless plains, only here and there broken by table-topped hills boldly scarped by sandstone and dolerite sheets, while occasionally dark ridges, the outcrops of inclined sheets of dolerite, are seen traversing the country for many miles.

The region is exposed to great extremes of temperature. Severe frosts are experienced in the winter nights, while the summer heats are correspondingly severe, reaching at times to 110° F. in the shade. The feeling of oppression at such times is increased by the hot westerly winds which predominate during the first half of summer, although the nights are cool even during the periods of greatest heat. The winter days, on the other hand, are very enjoyable, the air being keen and bright with a maximum of sunshine. There is a wide range of rainfall, from less than 5 inches in the north-west to 25 inches in the east; the greater part of this falls in violent summer thunderstorms, and almost all the water runs off the sun-baked soil into deep gullies which hurry it off to the sea. Severe droughts are common, and the streams are all intermittent. The soil is shallow and rock-strewn, except in the alluvial tracts in the valley bottoms, and surface limestone becomes an important feature in the drier parts of the region. Pans are abundant, and a striking feature in the low-grade

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valleys of the north-west are the wide "vloers" of Carnarvon and Calvinia, more or less well-defined flat areas a few miles wide and thinly covered with brackish silt.

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Owing to the great range in rainfall and altitude there is a considerable diversity of conditions in this region. While the north-western parts are little better than desert, the more favoured districts to the south and east are well covered with permanently-occupied farms, although agriculture is restricted to the alluvial tracts. The vegetation is everywhere of a semi-desert character. The greater part of the country supports only a sparse and incomplete covering of shrublets and stunted, skeleton-like bushes, most of which belong to the family *Compositae*. In spite of their unpromising appearance when burnt up by the rays of the summer sun, they afford excellent sustenance for stock even in the driest seasons, and at the present time they provide nourishment to millions of sheep and goats, supporting one of the great wool growing industries of the world. Thorny plants, succulents, bulbous and tuberous plants abound in places, but trees, principally *Acacias*, appear as a rule only along the dry sandy river-beds. Grasses are frequent in the rainy season, but nowhere form the dominant feature of the vegetation.

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The High Veld of the Orange Free State and the Southern Transvaal is essentially an extension eastwards of the Upper Karroo, but has a much better rainfall. Lying for the most part over 5,000 feet above sea-level, and with an invigorating climate, it is perhaps the most favourable region in the Union for a white population. The rainfall ranges from about 20 to 35 inches, and occurs principally during the summer months in thunderstorms. The winters are dry and cold, and severe frosts are by no means uncommon. The streams are often perennial. The country generally presents a most monotonous type of scenery, consisting of vast rolling plains, although as one travels westward towards drier regions the surface becomes flatter or more varied by steep-sided flat-topped hills. It is essentially grass country and for the most part devoid of indigenous trees, except along the river-banks, which are frequently clothed with willows and mimosas; shrubs are found on the koppies, while growing among the grasses are large numbers of bulbous and tuberous plants.

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B*The Coastal Regions*

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The country between the escarpment and the ocean is considerably smaller than the interior plateau, but as regards climate and structure

NATURAL DIVISIONS AND VEGETATION 15

it presents as much diversity. Along the west coast from the Olifants River northwards as far as the Kunene stretches a desolate and barren wilderness, well deserving the name of "Namib" or desert by which it is known in South-West Africa. This arid tract varies in width from 18 miles in the north to about 85 miles towards the south, and the ground-level rises gradually and evenly from the sea to the plateau. The greater part of the surface is covered by drifting sand dunes, which stretch in wave after wave to the horizon; here and there low gravelly hills and ridges of hard rock project through the mantle of sand, while in places gravel plains and sandy flats vary the monotonous billow of the landscape. The belt of dunes is widest and most continuous south of the Swakop, some of them reaching a height of 300 feet and over; further north they are at once much less continuous and much lower, and the country east of them is more broken. The Northern Namib is further distinguished from the Southern by the presence of watercourses which have kept an open channel to the sea.

The cold Benguella current sweeping the coast from the Antarctic is primarily responsible for the aridity of this region. The coast is dominated by cool winds from south and south-west for about 50 miles inland, although there are occasional very hot winds from the east during the dry season. The winds blowing inland over the cold water lose a considerable amount of their moisture, which hangs as a dense mist over the coastal border almost all the year round, but especially heavily in winter. The Namib in consequence is a practically rainless desert, the mean annual rainfall at Walvis Bay, for instance, being 0.3 inches, and at Port Nolloth 2.17 inches. The temperature, lowered by the Antarctic current, is fairly constant. Port Nolloth in the south, with a mean annual temperature of 57.5°, has the least annual range of temperature in South Africa; February the warmest month has a temperature of only 60.1°, while July the coolest month averages 54.2°.

The result of the deficient rainfall is a very scanty, intensely xerophytic vegetation. The plants are stunted and dwarfed, and nowhere form a conspicuous covering to the earth. Here and there considerable areas are almost entirely devoid of vegetation, although along much of the coastal border the wet and heavy sea fog maintains a sparse cover of bush on the sandy ground. From about 25 miles inland the landscape is characterized by such plants as the milk bush (*Euphorbia*) and cacti, while towards the east, in years of abundant rainfall, the country is fairly well grassed. In the river beds rich

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verdure may be found, such as various Acacias, the principal of which are the Kameeldoorn (*Acacia giraffae*) and the Ana (*Acacia albida*). The leaves and pods of the latter provide the staple food for the cattle, sheep and goats in these parts. Other characteristic vegetable growths are the inflammable candle bush (*Sarcocaulon Burmanni*) and, in the area inland from Walvis Bay, the famous !naras (*Acanthosicyos horrida Welw.*), a leafless cucurbitaceous plant with an edible melon-like fruit which when in season forms practically the sole article of diet of the natives. In one or two spots is found the most remarkable of all, the unique gymnosperm, *Welwitschia mirabilis*, which during a long lifetime produces only two pairs of leaves.

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At the Olifants River commences another tract of country, characterized by mountains of the folded type, which extend in parallel ranges, separated by wide valleys, over the whole southern portion of the Cape Province as far east as Humansdorp. From the narrow coastal strip fringing this tract the ground rises more or less abruptly to the mountains of the Folded Belt. To the west the rise is gradual through the fertile Goudini valley of Worcester district; further eastward the vegetation and climate partake more and more of the Karroo character, the Oudtshoorn valley and the many kloofs to the east being generally known as the Southern Karroo. The scenery here rapidly changes to bare uninteresting veld, traversed by deep gullies which are generally dry in the summer. In all directions the landscape is bounded by barren-looking mountains, whose steep, rocky sides appear from a distance to be entirely destitute of vegetation. Nothing can exceed the contrast between the scenery on the opposite slopes of the coast ranges: the traveller from the south, after ascending through luxuriant vegetation, frequently clothed in mist, emerges suddenly into a region of precipices and rocks, where rain may not have fallen for months. The soil in the valleys, however, is fertile when it can be brought under irrigation.

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The total annual rainfall is by no means deficient, the average for the region being about 29½ inches, although it varies greatly according to locality. The average for the Cape Peninsula is 40 inches, most of it falling on the eastern side of Table Mountain. Immediately to the east of Cape Town and as far as Knysna there is a decrease to between 15 and 20 inches. The rainfall then becomes more abundant, the well-wooded Knysna itself being one of the best-watered districts of South Africa, with an average rainfall of 40 inches. Further inland, except on the mountain slopes, the rainfall is much less, and the range

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of temperature is somewhat greater. Most of the rains fall during the winter (April to September), when the temperature, though mild, is still relatively low. The summer is the dry season, and long droughts regularly recur. H
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These climatic conditions have resulted in the production of a peculiar and characteristic type of vegetation. The dominant plants are evergreen shrubs some three to six feet high, usually with small, stiff, leathery leaves. Between the shrubs are many smaller plants, numbers of which possess bulbs, tubers or other subterranean organs storing up quantities of water and food substances. The sandy plains support a dwarf, heath-like vegetation, while the marshy hollows, the stream margins, mountain ravines and mountain summits all possess their own peculiar plant forms. The families characteristic of this region include the *Proteaceae*, to which belong many of the evergreen shrubs, among them the well-known silver tree (*Leucadendron argenteum*) of the Cape Peninsula and the sugar bush (*Protea mellifera*); the *Restionaceae*, a family of grass-like plants which largely take the place of true grasses in this region, though many of the latter occur as well; and the *Ericaceae* (heath family), which are very numerous and often strikingly beautiful. Forest patches are found in the kloofs and seaward sides of the mountains, the largest area of more or less continuous forest in the Union lying between the Outeniqua Mountains and the sea, extending from George through Knysna to the Humansdorp district. They are composed almost entirely of high timber trees, the more common being species of yellow wood, cedar, ebony, stinkwood, ironwood, and sneezewood. H
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The last natural region with which we are concerned is the Central or Great Karoo of the Cape Province. Lying at a level of from 1,500 to 3,000 feet above the sea, it stretches as a gently undulating plain from the foot-hills of the Folded Belt to the mountains forming part of the great escarpment in the north. On the west it extends to the valley of the Olifants River, while in the east the Sundays River may be taken as marking its limit. The mountains of the Folded Belt rob the rain-bearing winds from the sea of their moisture, and so give rise to the aridity of this region. The rainfall is scanty, the annual mean being less than 5 inches in the west, although it increases to 15 inches in the centre and east. The surface soil is shallow, hard, and compact; the river-courses are dry, except during the brief periods of rainfall in the summer, when the bulk of the water is rushed off immediately to the sea. In the dry season the whole region presents H
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133 a most desolate appearance. Verdure is entirely wanting, the numerous
132 gullies are empty, and the low ranges of ironstone koppies which
[137] dot the plains seem to reflect the heat as from a mirror. The vegetation
● is composed very largely of drought-resisting thorn bushes, succulents,
bulbous and tuberous plants. Grasses appear only in exceptionally
wet years, while trees are usually absent, except along the dry river-
courses and on the mountain slopes in the east, where the rainfall
is highest. Till the early years of the nineteenth century the Great
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[312] Karroo was regarded as a desert unfit for man or beast; since then
492 well-sinking and donkey transport have bettered the conditions,
and the region has gradually become occupied.

FAUNA

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136 The great variety of habitat provided by the country taken as a
whole has naturally favoured the development of a varied and
abundant fauna.¹ South Africa has long been renowned for the wealth
of its larger forms of animal life, although with the advance of
European settlement and colonization the numbers have been rapidly
reduced, particularly of certain classes of big game. The native
inhabitants had certainly done something to reduce the numbers and
affect the distribution of the fauna, but a balance had been reached
which still left the country richly stocked. The Cape was full of game
when the first European settlers established themselves there 250 years
ago, and in their gradual spread inland the white men found the same
abundance of fine forms of animal life in each new tract of country
that they entered. A few decades were enough to convert each newly-
opened district from a hunter's paradise into a stock-farming country,
and the increase of veld-burning carried the destruction into other
zones of life. But over large parts of South Africa the face of the
country itself has been little changed on the whole, and a good deal
of the original fauna has survived, even on much of the enclosed land.

The mammalian fauna is, or rather was, characterized by the great
abundance and variety of antelopes, the presence of such remarkable
"living fossils" as the elephant, giraffe, rhinoceros, hippopotamus,
and aardvark, as well as of the buffalo, zebra, and quagga, and the
abundance of carnivora, large and small. During the eighteenth

¹ An excellent short account is given by Dr. E. L. Gill, "Descriptive Sketch of the Fauna of South Africa," *Official Year Book of the Union*, No. 9, pp. 31-41. Cf. also Pannings, *op. cit.*, pp. 78-84.

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930

FX13 Hottentot FX13

Nama

PLATE XIV

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TOPHAAR HUT UNDER GIRAFFE ACACIA

E. Schapera

000 effusis collibus, & per immensum spargentibus oculos, coelum montibus suspensa terra diversissima plantarum gratia praedivites *Semiramidis Alcinotae* hortos, aut *Elysios* in ipso deserto campos aemulari videbatur: ubi cumulatissimam earundem ilico conquisivi sarcinam, ut viva exemplaria botanosophis *Musis* imposterum offerrem. Miratus praesertim ingentem *gummosae aloes* copiam, quae millena aliquot amarissimi succi pondera industrio quotannis expromere posset. Tum ad valetudinariam & jam pene agonizantem navim revocabat vespera venatores, petrosam maris tegentes in reditu litus, multivario *ostracodermatôn* genere conspersum. Inde fortuitis nos subducentes periculis (quippe *Belgae* octo *hippopotamorum* venationi insudantes, miserrime nuper ibidem ab *Hottentottis* confecti erant) sublestam repetimus acatio ratem; qua postridie, propitio extra sinum argeste (N.W.) solvimus; a meridie praeternavigantes ^{b)} *Darinsulam*, paucis servatam excubilis ^{c)} *marinorum cuniculorum* capturae, otumque pastioni ab *Illustri. orientalium Indiarum societate*, decore ac praesidio nostro summo, designatis.

Pridie Iduum Octobris, sub noctem tranquillius ad litora nos impellebat mesolibonatus (Z.T.W.) ad viginti tres profunditatis orgyas ancoram fundantes.

* I conjecture legentes.

b) Dassen Eyland.

c) Robben.

137 * This collection was sent from India to the botanist Breyer, and forms an appendix to *Pianterum exoticarum Centuria prima*, published by him in Dantzig in 1678 (B.F.)

721 ¹⁾ This refers to a party of eight freemen who had gone with the governor's permission, in June 1673, to shoot big game for the needs of their families. They crossed the Berg River at a ford near Riebeeck's Kasteel and went up into the mountains beyond Twenty-Four Rivers. There, at a place which long afterwards bore the name Moord Kull, they were surrounded by Gonnema's Koochoqua, who after detaining them for several days murdered them all. (*Theal. Hist. of S. Africa before 1795*, II 212; cf. D. June 29, July 11, July 14, 1673.) Soon afterwards four men in

vast expanse of heaven, and earth with the varied charm
of many plants seemed to rival the rich gardens of
Semiramis or Alcinous, or to present a vision of the Elysian
fields in the midst of a wilderness. Of these plants I
forthwith collected a generous supply that I might
afterwards make offering of the actual specimens to the
Botanical Museum.* I specially admired the enormous
abundance of gum aloes, capable of an annual yield of
thousands of pounds of bitter juice if cultivated. Then the
approach of evening recalled us from our hunting to our
ship where there were many sick men already almost at the
last gasp. On our return we skirted a stony beach covered
with a rich variety of shell fish. Then escaping without
hurt from the dangers that might befall us (I must explain
that eight Dutchmen recently who were hunting the
hippopotamus perished wretchedly at the hands of the
Hottentots on this very spot¹⁾) we regained our crazy bark
in the dinghy. Next day we weighed anchor, picking up a
fair N.W. breeze outside the bay, and in the afternoon we
sailed past Dassen Island, which is occupied only by a few
poets established by the Illustrious East India Company,
our great glory and protection, for catching seals and
pasturing the sheep.

On the 14th of October at the fall of night a gentle
S.W. breeze carried us to the shore and we cast anchor
in 23 fathoms of water.

charge of the Dutch post at Saldanha Bay were also murdered
by Hottentots of the same tribe. A punitive expedition under
Rensijn Hieronymus Cruse was dispatched from the Fort at Table
Bay, but the Hottentots could not be got at, except for one slight
skirmish, although 500 head of cattle and 500 sheep were looted
from them and brought back to the Fort. The war which started
in this way dragged on for four years, the Dutch, assisted by
the Capesmen and other local Hottentots, sending out several
expeditions against Gonnema, who with his men always managed
to escape in time, although not without the loss of his cattle
and sheep. Peace was finally restored in June, 1677, when the
Hottentots submitted and promised to pay tribute to the Dutch.
(Theal, op. cit., chaps. 38, 31, passim; D. 1673-1677, passim.)

On the 13th, with a gentle N.W. wind blowing, when we were rejoicing in the distant prospect of the long-desired Cape of Good Hope, we sailed past another island, Robben Island, distant according to the maps five miles from our fort, eight miles from Damsen Island, and about fifteen from Saldanha Bay. It is not made conspicuous by any lofty mountain peak; as a matter of fact only a low hill rises there. It is used as a prison for convicts employed in gathering shells to be burned for the lime for the new fort.* Here are many chameleons, smaller than the Indian variety, insects of every sort, small reptiles, various snakes, poisonous spiders as big as a man's fist, etc.

At four in the afternoon Table Bay received us, having lost abundance of men in this voyage, and on the next day the table of the Governor, an incomparable man.† We were summoned to his board by the sound of the bugle; and while rowing ashore our long-boat was hindered in reaching the sandy beach of Africa by a species of very large seaweed, commonly called drombasses. The whole of our smaller ship's boat would scarcely have sufficed to carry one plant. This seaweed is a sign to those approaching the Cape of Good Hope of their speedy arrival, as is also the presence of a species of sea-bird, an albatross of a whitish colour and small size. The place delighted us by its strangeness, the interest of the observer being excited to a livelier attention by the fact that the circumstances of the inhabitants of this part are still unknown to writers. For they say (and this is all they tell us) that a certain emperor spread his sway from the Mountains of the Moon to the Cape of Good Hope or the extremities of Africa; that his realm was divided into four kingdoms, and called Monomotapas.‡

* The present castle, founded 1665, occupied 1674 (the year after Ten Rhyne's visit), and finished 1676. (B.F.)

† The Governor at this time was Isaac Coetz (1673-76), the first to bear the title Governor in place of Commander. He had been sent out specially to prepare the Cape for defence in the event of its being attacked by the English or French, with whom the Netherlands were then at war, and the building of the castle was completed during his tenure of office.

‡ Ten Rhyne hardly does justice to Herodotus, Diodorus and other earlier Dutch writers whose accounts of the Hottentots should have been familiar to him. Legends of Monomotapas and the vast wealth of this Empire were still current in his time, but of the Cape itself a good deal of accurate information was already available in published works.

Here I shall not attempt to relate a regular history. 0700
 my intention being to confine myself within the limits
 of a journal. Did these people spring originally from Ham,
 the son of Noah, with the exception of some Arabs of
 the stock of Shem who entered Africa later on? Or did
 the native races in Africa increase and multiply, and living
 frugally in a place unknown to fame, and denied sustenance
 for their numerous population by an unproductive soil,
 frequently send out their youth in quest of new lands to
 settle, until, it may be, these emigrants, spreading far and
 wide unobserved, finally settled in the remotest shores of
 Africa? These questions are not so important for us to
 answer; let us content ourselves with learning their ways
 of life and their dealings with others. But as a preliminary
 to this we must inquire for a little while into the nature
 and situation of the land they occupy.

CHAP. I.

The Situation of the Cape of Good Hope.

The Promontory known as the Cape of Good Hope is 131
 situated at the southernmost point of Africa. Its longitude,
 in respect of the Straits of Gibraltar, is 38 degrees, 25
 minutes; and its latitude, in respect of the Hesperian
 Promontory and Oardara (?) is 34 degrees and 30 minutes.
 It was discovered in the year 1486 by Vasco di Gama, sailing
 under the protection of John, King of Portugal.¹⁷⁾ Its 133
 mountains lower up to heaven, but are barren and very
 unfriendly to man. The tribes here are little blessed with
 crops, lying under the influence of malignant stars. The
 barren land stretches out vast and formless in pure sandy
 deserts, with bushes ore thrusting through the surface, [x]
 unrelieved by the blittings of vegetation, but friendly rather
 to thorns and thistles and rough briars, unless by assiduous
 and prolonged cultivation it be made to yield pasturage,
 which even then is but scant. Apart from the sandy wastes
 it consists of huge stony mountains with here and there a
 plain. Worthy of note, then, is a certain wide level expanse
 with a circumference of about three miles, where a bloody
 battle once took place, and which is called in consequence

¹⁷⁾ The Cape of Good Hope was first "discovered" by
 Bartholomew Diaz in 1487, and decided again by Vasco da Gama
 in 1487, on his famous voyage to India, the first by the Cape
 sea-route.



Bakkeley Plaats.⁷ There is also another plain, called by our countrymen De Buffelsjacht,⁸ perched on a mountain difficult of access, beyond which it is not yet known whether the country is flat or mountainous. But who could measure all those mountain heights, winding hills, and spreading plains?

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Of the mountains near the Fort the loftiest is called Table Mountain, from its flat top, and from its height it is a beacon for those seeking this harbour. From base to summit it is said to measure five leagues.⁹ And certain it is that it was after a very stiff climb and the loss of much sweat that I succeeded in scaling it. There were myriads of different plants; and at the foot of the mountain, which is cleft through the middle, I passed through a marshy grove of palmitides, with sharply reticulated roots. Once we met a terrifying troop of yelling baboons; and during our descent in the evening saw many "meteors." Sparks were dancing in every direction in the air, and the first sight of them terrified my companions, who supposed that these must be the blazing eyes of lions, noted here for their daring. But when I tried to catch them in my hand the sparks fled; and I learned subsequently that these "meteors" resemble in their marshy juice, which glows in the darkness, the meteor bolts. Another mountain which formerly gave its name to the place is called Lion Mountain, not from the roaring of the savage winds, but from its natural shape. On its summit are always posted two look-outs to give warning of the approach of ships.

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The sheer snowy mountains with which all this region is hemmed in are naturally associated with rivers as a body is with its shadow. The most important are: 1. Bot river, 2. Palmiet river (7), 3. Berg river, which springs more obviously than the others from the mountains, 4. River Sonder End, rising among the mountains but of extent unknown as yet, 5. Bredde river, a shallow stream, very

⁷ Bakkeley Plaats is near the village of Vredendal, west of Van Rynsdorp. The name is derived from the Malay *berkelehi*, to fight, and refers to a skirmish which took place here in May, 1688, between the Dutch stationed at Saldanha Bay and some Namaqua who had stolen some cattle and sheep from them and from other Hottentots. (D., May 17, 1688; Godefr-Münsterberg, *Annuaire de l'Inde-Asiatique*, I, 136.)

⁸ Probably the Buffelsjagt R. in the district of Swellendam, to which cattle-trading expeditions were often sent from Hottentots Holland. The country beyond was not fully known until after Schryver's journey of 1688.

⁹ See note on opposite page. The height of Table Mountain is 3,665 feet, so that Ten Rhyne's estimate is somewhat generous.

CHAP. VI.

Plants.

To botanical studies I devoted greater attention, for this soil, barren though it be, abounds in plants of every sort, to the description of which I have set aside a special-work. For, in the first place, if one takes a walk upon the shore one encounters conditions that produce a luxuriance of vegetable life. Here I myself have seen quantiles of the plant kail, about the salt of which the ancients spoke so much and the modern pundits speak still more. Or, on the other hand, if one strolls across the flats, there is again an immense variety of plants, especially comely ericas, house-leeks of various kinds, luxuriant Star of Bethlehem plants, and narcissi. The bulbs of these often equal a human head in size, and specimens were long ago sent to Holland to satisfy the curious. There are also geraniums that smell sweetly by night. Or, again, if one ranges the mountains, there are woods full of trees and shrubs. Among the various species of tree one is more common than all the rest. It is called ironwood by the Dutch, but up till now it has been dedicated solely to Vulcan. And in the hills there is a fruit-bearing aloe, and good kind of scammony. In the garden there is the Indian nightshade, and a certain species of melon, which wonderfully restores the health of those who arrive after a long voyage by its diuretic quality. Then there is the Musa brought from the torrid zone (the Malays call it Piran, the Arabs Amusan), with regard to which we have it on the authority of those who have tested the matter, that they, like the coco-palm, flourish only inside, never outside, the tropics. Places which are nearer the equinoctial line have more and larger specimens of these fruits, which gradually decrease in number and in size according to the various degrees of declination from the Equator, and at length disappear. Thus it was only rarely that I found the Musa at the Cape of Good Hope, and always without fruit. In Bengal, outside the tropics, there are apples and pears of the Dutch variety, no coco-palms or Musae. But at Masquetti, a place in the same kingdom of Bengal, and in Persia from the beginning of the tropic, these fruits grow, but without juice. The nearer they get to the line, the juicier and larger they become. A rough and uncultivated region imparts its own natural qualities to trees that are elsewhere soft and delicate, while an air more fine than their native air intensifies their strength.

10: Grevenbröck F-5 (ca. 1694) 1935
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Cape Hottentot

AN ACCOUNT OF THE HOTTENTOTS

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The more distant the veld is from us, the more grassy it is, the richer in plants, and the more suited to cultivation. It abounds in oxen and sheep and other animals, as well as every kind of wild beast, so that, as I have said, it is like a zoo; and the mountain glades are so full of huge creatures that there is little danger to man from lions or other wild animals, for there is everywhere ready for them to rend and tear a supply of victims both domesticated and wild which they can easily pounce upon with less danger to themselves than if they attacked men who are generally armed.

There are quarries, and the mountains are pregnant with various metals. Sometimes the soil is rich in gums. And the abundant shady woods and tall stout trees are suited for constructing both houses and ships. Also there are the many wild fruit trees which could without doubt be improved by cultivation. Among others I have seen a species of olive, often warmly praised but as yet, through what chance I know not, neglected. It may be that the method of cultivation is unknown, and that no one has been found who understands the manufacture of the oil.

Near us are many fields of various kinds; that is to say, in a length of one hundred feet you will often find three or four kinds of soil: there barren sand, there gravel, elsewhere clay, and then marsh, mud, flint and rocks. This is the reason, I think, that the ground under corn does not yield crops that ripen uniformly at the one time, but some patches are more advanced than others. So a farmer does not steadily carry out the mowing of the crops once he begins, but turning his reaping-hook from the unripe corn, he goes now along this furrow, now along that, selecting what is ready for the sickle.

The sun is rarely so hot as to scorch the crops; blight is still rarer. The women of the interior, to whose lot this task even at the present day, from old custom and ancestral precedent, still falls, do not dig the soil with mattocks or dibbles, but with a rake.

The natives on this side of the mountain enthusiastically hire out their labour for a modest wage, and toil more industriously than Spartan helots. They are apt in applying their hands to unfamiliar tasks. Thus they readily acquire the veterinary skill to cure sores in sheep, and they make faithful and efficient herds. They train oxen for use in ploughing; and if put in charge of a wagon, coach or cart, they are found exceedingly quick at incipanning or outspanning or guiding a team. Some of them are very accomplished riders, and have learned to break horses and master them. You would swear it was a Saracen galloping over the open plain. Runaways, vagrants and

10: Grevenbroek F-5 (ca. 1694) 1933

FX13 Hottentot FX13

Cape Hottentot

AN ACCOUNT OF THE HOTTENTOTS

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The soil, which is fruitful both of corn and wine, provides a copious plenty of provisions and supplies. It even yields tobacco, which, if it were cultivated, would rival the American. The grain crop is wonderfully abundant, the increase of the harvest being sometimes forty-fold. I count ninety-nine stalks and as many ears from one grain of wheat, and in one ear which I rubbed out there were seventy-five grains. This is an astonishing yield, equal even to that of Sicily.

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I have it on reliable authority that there are wide plains bearing wild onions and other vegetables suitable for food, and huge tracts of land full of supplies, such as leeks, shallots, edible thistles, spring onions and garlic. I have myself seen fields full of ambrosia, which I have sometimes gathered and found fit for eating, together with artichoke(?) and wild asparagus of various species.

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Fields have been shown to me which twenty years ago, and perhaps from the creation to that day, were a rude waste on which neither nature nor man had grown anything. But for the last twenty years they have been well sown, and with only two or three fallow periods in all that time, with no manure, and after the slightest turning of the surface with the plough, they have yielded an abundant harvest of wheat. At the time I saw them the corn was in the blade and promised a rich crop.

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I remember that a sprig or cutting of an apple-tree two feet long took root when planted. A year later a slip was grafted on to it, and within the year it bore ripe fruit. Also a vine planted in June bore grapes the following December. Such fertility is unprecedented. But indeed all the fruits of other lands, those which genial Europe, fertile Asia, and America, the farmer's joy, pour from their open lap, can with few exceptions be seen flourishing here on our promontory and never disappointing the hopes of the husbandman.

I have seen heads of cabbage and marrows so big that hardly a pot could be found to hold them. The turnips here are equally large, so much so that I have used one for a stool when I got tired walking. Beets have been dug out of a bank in my presence so fleshy that they were as long and as thick as a man's arm. Such vegetables it has astonished me to behold, and the more so on finding them all deliciously flavoured.

Our vines here bear so well that a reliable farmer told me that in one vintage from eight hundred choice vines he got six casks (commonly called hogheads) of excellent pale-red, dark-red, or yellow wine. And everybody assures me that the native vine produces so mellow a grape that

It never injures the greatest glutton, even if he consumes whole bunches of the largest size. Indeed it is maintained that men invalided after a long voyage, their health broken by their sufferings, and perhaps afflicted with dysentery and gripes, have often been cured as if by a specific on eating berries and their skins together with a little bread. Sufferers from other diseases have also, it is said, been cured.

Then in this land there is, I might almost say, everlasting spring, by reason of the sunny flowers with their lively smells and gay liveries. Here too are mountains, hills, valleys, meadows, groves, all so filled with grasses, and shrubs, with grain, and aromatic herbs, that verdant Spain compared with such fertility would show like the barren deserts of Arabia or Libya. So sweet have I found the breath of these smells in my nostrils that at times I could have wished myself all none the better to taste myself with perfumes the fragrance of which was as far beyond all pastilles and incense, and Sabeen thuribles, all the perfumeries of Italy and pharmacies of Spain, the shops of the dealers in spices, and the vendors of myrrh, as a rose is sweeter than a marigold. All these flowers proclaim the hand of the Omnipotent Creator in their structure, so perfect are they in all their parts, so delicate in design, so infinitely various, so bright, so manifold in their shapes of beauty; with the sweetness of their scent they seem to cry aloud God! God!; and as they spring up anew each returning year they show forth plainly in a symbol the doctrine of the resurrection of the dead.

The farmer here has no great cause to fear locusts, hail, blight, mildew or other disasters to his crops. The birds, however, unless prevented, as they usually are, by the skill and watchful vigilance of the natives on guard, do sometimes ravage a field, a vineyard, or a garden. And there are rust-worms, centipedes, canker-worms, caterpillars, beetles, as well as other insects so small that they are scarcely visible but almost choke the sight of our eyes, which sometimes devour vines, young corn not yet grown into the stalk, fruits, peas, and other similar vegetables. The crops are wormed, and the farmers wretchedly cheated of their hopes.

No tax, or at any rate a very small one, is laid upon the farmer. All that is required of him is that in the fourth year after he has begun to cultivate his farm he should pay a tithe of the grain harvested according to his own calculations; and the farm is given free to each man by

922 instances, to know whether a man is by himself, one would
 976 ask, *ǃGuriseb hi!* Is he alone?

ǃGum, two, I derive from the root *ǃka*, *ǃkha*, *ǃga*, or *ǃya*, which is originally a post-position, meaning with, "added," "contributed," in connection with.

ǃNoma, three, comes from *ǃno-mo-s* or *ǃno-mo-s*, the root, the *radix* of a tree. In every plant the central root is the radical and strongest root. The same, the middle finger of every hand being the *rad-finger*, it is obvious that this finger should have provided the name for the number three, because the natives count with the aid of the fingers; and whether they commence with the thumb or with the little finger, the central or middle finger always will turn out to be the *third* finger, and thus this finger became the symbol of the abstract number three.

Hape, four, I cannot venture to explain.

More interesting again is the derivation of *ǃgwe*, *ǃfwe*, which means nothing else than the palm of the hand. The word *ǃgweb*, for palm of the hand, is antiquated but still in use. I once told a girl to take a dish of food to her mother in return for milk which I had received, and told her to be careful and not to break the dish. She answered, "*ǃGweb ǃna ta ni tui!*" (I will carry it in the

982 [982] palm of my hand). This is the way in which the
 986 Khoikhoi girls always carry their milk-vessels. *ǃGweb*
 137 is also the *Euphorbia* *candelabra*, and shows at the dis-
 103 tance the profile or appearance of a vertically stretched
 982 arm with the open hand. It is certain that both the
 986 number *ǃgwe* and the *ǃgwe-tree* have derived the name
 137 from *ǃgweb* (also *kweb*), the open hand. It is also
 103 certain that the number *ǃgwe* and the tree have both are
 of the same age. The lack of this *ǃgwe-tree* has served

982 [982] from the earliest times as the chief material for the
 manufacturing of the quiver. Flasks have received their
 names from the abundance of these trees. There is a
Korogot in the North-western Cape Colony; a [Korogot
 told me that he was born at Korogot in the Free State;

another Koro~~x~~as is in the Gami-~~f~~nus territory in 822
Southern Namaqualand, and another Koro~~x~~as in the North-196
western Kalihari, between Gobabis and Ghanse. It is 137
well known that the Euphorbia candelabra shows the most 103
beautiful and gigantic forms in the Khalembe Mountains
and in Sekakani's country and the Hoogetveldt (High-
lands) of the Eastern Transvaal. From this we may
conclude, as the pre-tree does not grow in flats, but
is, in very few exceptions, almost entirely confined to
mountainous territories, that the Khoikhoi before they
separated lived in a mountainous country. This circum-
stance allows us to account for the higher development
which they received before their cousins, the Bushmen.
It also points out to us the primordial "fatherland" of the
Khoikhoi.

We come now to the number *jaasé*, six, where I am 302
not able to give a satisfactory explanation. 196

Hé or *hage* (originally *hewige*) mean the "mixed
one," the "amalgamated one," from *h-wei*, to stir, to
amalgamate. For instance, if milk is thrown into coffee,
a man says, "Henis eibe ota ni igise k." "Stir at first"
(that is, mix the coffee with the milk), "and you will drink
nicely." Whether the seven colours of the rain-
bow gradually bring into one another originated the
idea of the number seven I cannot tell, but I think it
possible.

Héhe or *hahé*, eight, is very clear from the root
hahé, to turn; *thoukhahé* means "turning number"—i.e.,
four is turning back again.

Héhe, nine, is not intelligible. All I can say is, that
it has with *hahé*, ten, the root *hahé* in common.

Dis, ten, from *d* to *do*, would give us the meaning
"done," "finished." And the Khoikhoi now continued
doos, *dis-igai-fah*; twelve, *disi-igam-fah*—that is,
ten-one-with, ten-two-with, &c. &c., or simply with
striking off *dis*, to, *igam-fah*, two-with, and so forth.
Twenty is *igam dis* two tens; thirty is *jaona dis*, three

legends, by supposing that the people among whom they 171
are found descended from a common ancestry in primordial
times. But such coincidences merely corroborate the old
maxim that among different varieties of men, in different
regions, and at different times, the same objects have
given rise to the same idea.—Peschel, "Races of Man,"
London, 1876, pp. 461 and 462.

" *After the death of the snake.*—I shall hereafter, in OW
the third chapter, come back to this superstition, and
only now mention that the words, *jan-b snake*, *jan-b*
blood, *jan-s fountain*, *jan to bleed*, *jan to flow*, *jan to*
bear ill-feeling, *javi* (from *jan* to stream) to rain, *jaya*
red, are all derived from the root *IAU* to flow, to stream,
and we shall see why it is that in every fountain there
is a snake.

" Alexander is mistaken if he calls ‡Numcep a Bush- 101
man. The name of this so-called Bushman proves
sufficiently that he was a Khoikhoi. The ‡Auni tribe
live in the territory here spoken of. The poor Namaquas
are also called by the others, Bushmen, especially when
they are servants, or if they lead a Bushman's life, and
have no cattle and sheep.

" *Labouring under an attack of dysentery.*—Sometimes OW
the brackish water works so strongly on the bowels that
one who drinks it is immediately taken ill.

" *Jaarua.*—This fruit is a Cucurbitacea, almost as 137
large as a newborn child's head. The flesh of it is eaten
raw, and the seeds are kept for the dry season, when
there is no fruit. The seeds taste almost like almonds,
and are at present to be got from confectioners in Cape
Town. The Topnaars or ‡Annis of Waldfish Bay and
Sandwich Harbour, and all the Bushmen tribes along
the coast of Great Namaqualand, live partly on this fruit.
It is to be met with from the Orange River mouth as far
as latitude twenty-one degrees: but it grows only on the
sandy coast.

" *Bolman*, or *IAva-khoib*, is identical with Khoikhoib, 101

garden thou mayest freely eat: but of the tree of the ⁰¹⁶ knowledge of good and evil, thou shalt not eat of it; for in the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die," Genesis ii. 16, 17, and Adam still partaking of the forbidden fruit, died. I heard the same myth on the outskirts of the Western Kalihari, where I met ostrich hunters from the !O-gis tribe who never had a missionary, and almost every !Auni of the !Khomu Mountains and every Gellikhan knows it too. I myself have ⁰¹⁷ eaten of the fruit of the so-called wild raisin tree, or ⁰¹⁸ *!ots*, and the consequence was that I had an attack of dysentery. The natives having no medicine often succumb to such attacks. It is besides a well-known fact, that the flowers and herbs at a certain time of the year prove detrimental to cattle and sheep. Various diseases break out, known by our colonists as *pebricite* and *Woodroffe's*. Sometimes cattle suddenly swell up and die, and the natives then remove to more healthy spots.

"This hymn of Tshitigah, compared with George ⁰¹⁹ Schmidt's statement, which we gave in one of the preceding pages, shows us that Tshitigah was invoked by all Kheikhoi with the same prayer, in the same way as we now a days all over the world invoke "the Father in Heaven" with the "Lord's Prayer," which Christ taught his disciples. At the same time this hymn confirms the fact, "that a poetic form is more easily remembered than a prose form, and that it is better adapted for securing the strict accuracy of historical myths." I am of opinion that the greater part of the Kheikhoi myths, especially those which tell us of the heroic deeds and fights of Hoini-shih and Tshitigah, were all in a poetic form, of which such verses as are here and there interwoven in the prose parts of the present myths are fragments. For the last fifteen years these epical myths have been sung and performed exactly in the same way as the "Songs of Samayab and Gellah," men who distinguished themselves in the late Namaqua and Damra war.